CHAPTER SIX

THE EARLY REPUBLIC, 1775 TO 1820

MAJOR DEVELOPMENTS

- ☐ The Revolutionary War and the Early National period, 1775 to1789
- ☐ Federal period, 1789 to1820

SIGNIFICANT EVENTS

- ☐ Total population in the region reaches 700,000 by 1775.
- ☐ Revolutionary War, 1775 to 1783.
- ☐ The United States declares Independence, 1776.
- ☐ Cornwallis surrenders his army to generals George Washington and comte de Rochambeau at Yorktown, Virginia, effectively ending the fighting in North America, October 19, 1781.
- ☐ The Constitution is ratified, 1789.
- ☐ The Bank of Maryland is established, 1790.
- ☐ Maryland and Virginia provide land and funds for the new national capital, 1791.
- ☐ The nation's capital is moved to the newly established District of Columbia (later Washington, D.C.), 1792. The Cape Henry Lighthouse is built the same year.
- ☐ Construction begins on the U.S. Capitol, 1793.
- ☐ Yellow fever ravages the region between 1793 and 1794.
- ☐ Regional population reaches one million, 1800.

- ☐ Work begins on the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal, 1804.
- ☐ The federal government abolishes importation of slaves, 1808.
- ☐ Work begins on the Cumberland Road, 1811.
- ☐ War of 1812 renews hostilities with Great Britain between 1812 and 1814.
- ☐ The first commercial steamboat on Chesapeake Bay waters begins service, 1813.
- ☐ British troops burn Washington and besiege Baltimore, 1814.
- ☐ The University of Virginia is established, 1816.
- ☐ The nation's first gas utility, the Baltimore Gas Lighting Company, is chartered in 1817.
- ☐ Construction begins on Fortress Monroe, Virginia, 1819.

AN ECOLOGY OF PEOPLE AND PLACE

People

The outbreak of war between Great Britain and its North American colonies in 1775 significantly altered people's lives throughout the Chesapeake Bay region. As the War of Independence intensified, coastal plain and Piedmont communities increasingly took on a wartime stance. They prepared defenses, mobilized communities, and dedicated resources to maintaining the war effort.

The first years of the war were marked by confusion and hardship. Although opinions about the war were divided, all Chesapeake Bay people suffered from shortages caused by the British blockade begun in 1776. Conditions improved when the British were forced to lift the blockade following France's entrance into the war on the American side in 1779. And some Chesapeake Bay merchants even benefitted from the war. Sailing from Baltimore, Norfolk, Annapolis, and smaller ports, they took advantage of new opportunities for plunder and the opening of markets

of rival powers formerly officially closed to them. Loyalist skippers – employed by established firms based in larger ports such as Baltimore, Annapolis, and Norfolk – plied a burgeoning trade with New York and other British held ports. Entrepreneurial captains of Revolutionary vessels sailing from smaller ports carried cargoes to Philadelphia, Boston, and other American-held harbors. Many of these men made fortunes as privateers (sailors on armed, private ships licensed to attack enemy ships). They preyed on the ships of Great Britain and her allies. Fighting periodically ravaged the region throughout the war. Virginia's royal governor, John Murray Dunmore, conducted a series of raids on rebel positions throughout Hampton Roads during the war's first years. In 1777, a large British army commanded by Major General Sir William Howe moved up Chesapeake Bay on its way to Philadelphia. The British made three other incursions into the region between 1779 and 1781 before the combined American and French armies under George Washington and the Comte de Rochambeau compelled Lord Charles Cornwallis to surrender his army at Yorktown on October 19, 1781. This effectively ended the fighting in North America.

The conclusion of the War for Independence also provided the last act in the war for the inland empire of the Ohio Valley. This conflict had begun in the mid-1750s, when Virginia tidewater land speculators anxious to assert claims to lands west of the Blue Ridge played a central role in starting the global conflict known as the Seven Years' War. By 1790, many of these speculators had grown rich, not on Ohio lands (which were acquired Pennsylvania or formed into new states like Kentucky), but on a form of commercial agriculture based on large plantations employing craftsmen, commission agents, and middle managers such as overseers and stewards. Enslaved Africans were the principal laborers for almost every aspect of this economy.

Reaching beyond plantation boundaries, slaves furnished the skilled and unskilled labor essential for constructing buildings and roads, staffing fisheries, building ships, working mills, and laboring in the embryonic iron industry.

The Chesapeake Bay economy was closely integrated into the emerging political order of the new nation. Established landowners and powerful families competed with entrepreneurs in a widening network of international trade. These were only two factions in a new nation struggling to cope with a growing and diverse population. Social ferment generated by the struggle of competing classes, castes, and interests shaped the particular sense of identity and purpose developing in the region as the new nation took its place in the world community. Creation of a national identity became a conscious and compelling concern as citizens searched for ways to express, celebrate, and strengthen the bonds linking them together.

Although most communities in the region maintained a rural way of life, population growth spurred development everywhere. New roads connected Piedmont communities, and county seats along overland transportation routes, such as the Virginian villages of Charlottesville, Warrenton, and Leesburg, grew into town centers. These county seats were centrally situated – ideally within a day's ride of any locale in the county – and provided courthouses, warehouses, inns, shops, churches, and other institutions serving the needs of county residents.

Farther east, counties on both shores of the Bay grew more urban. Population growth was greatest in older cities such as Baltimore and Richmond; newer cities grew slowly, including the new national capital of Washington, D.C., established across the Anacostia River from the formerly bustling port city of Bladensburg in1791. New construction abounded in city centers. Demographically, these regional towns resembled the nation's other developing urban centers,

such as New York and Philadelphia: They contained an even balance of men and women, as well as significant numbers of children.

In the decades following the Revolution, economic growth in the region was slowed by external forces. Although the war was over, the British continued to prey on American ships, seizing cargo and forcing American sailors into service in the Royal navy as seamen. In addition, blockades maintained by warring powers in Europe resulted in the confiscation of many American cargoes and the closing of ports to American commerce. In response, the U.S. Congress passed the Embargo Act of 1807, which prohibited exports to Europe and limited imports from Great Britain.

Differences with Great Britain finally erupted into open war in 1812. The War of 1812 brought new devastation to Chesapeake Bay country. Maryland was particularly hard hit in 1814, when British troops and naval units attacked several Bay towns, defeated an American army at Bladensburg, burned Washington's public buildings, and besieged Baltimore. Today, an entire flotilla of American vessels scuttled to avoid capture lies beneath the waters of the northern Bay.

The pace of development quickened following the end of the war in 1814. Baltimore, for example, rose from a small town to a major port. By 1820 it had become the nation's third largest city, with a population of more than 62,000. Eclipsing rival ports, Baltimore became a principal shipping point for grain, tobacco, and manufactured goods from Virginia, Maryland, and the Susquehanna Valley.

Two wars and the rapid expansion of the population left their mark on Chesapeake lands and waters during this period. The shortages and destruction caused by war stimulated peacetime development. Although agriculture continued to dominate the region, emphasis shifted from farming tobacco to raising livestock and producing bulk foods such as wheat and corn. Still representing the majority of landholdings, small coastal plain farms continued to be worked by small numbers of slaves. Larger tidewater plantations remained vast enterprises, often worked by large numbers of slaves. Slavery did not play a major role in many Piedmont locales. Many of the farms in the region were owned by new Scot-Irish and German immigrants. Unwilling or unable to bear the expense of slaves, most of these people instead relied on their large families for farm labor.

Increases in agricultural production stimulated the growth of population centers throughout the region. Piedmont towns in particular became centers of commerce. Sustained by local agriculture, located near valuable timber, water, and mineral resources, and situated along roads and rivers linking the coast with the western interior, many had grown into sizable communities by 1820. In addition, fishing, shipbuilding, and trading ports along the coast grew into mercantile towns and cities. The orderly grids of many of these towns contrasted with the irregular boundaries of outlying farmlands.

Tidewater geography was a major advantage for the region, too, as it favored the growth of commerce. Islands and estuaries provided ready access to fishing grounds and shellfish beds. Although they were shallow, most coastal plain waterways were calm, sheltered from storms, and easily navigated. Ports and plantation landings were built along navigable stretches of rivers up to

the fall line. Perhaps not surprisingly, one of the first public programs undertaken by the new national government was the construction of a lighthouse system. The first of these was Virginia's Cape Henry Lighthouse, a ninety-foot-high, stone shaft constructed at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay in 1792. The light provided by this and similar structures both improved safety and provided the first swift communication network linking coastal plain communities.

The new government also devoted public monies to canal, road, and turnpike construction. This improved access, which helped transform most of the remaining tidewater forests into agricultural fields. Farther inland, ferries, bridges, roads, and the Potomac Canal and other slack water routes around fall line rapids opened more Piedmont forest to the woodsman's axe. Large scale deforestation accompanied new settlements in Pennsylvania's lower Susquehanna Valley, Maryland's Great Valley, and the Virginia Piedmont.

Timber throughout the region was cut by metal axes and saws. It was then processed in water powered sawmills at mill seats alongside dammed falls and rapids. Sawn, cut, and milled lumber was used to fence farms, fabricate tools and conveyances, and build, furnish, and heat homes. Because of this high demand for lumber and the absence of a program to replenish supplies of valuable trees, young pines and a profusion of marshgrass, crabgrass, wiregrass, and bluegrasses took over when mature oaks, hickories, and other highly marketable trees were cut. The demands of the local population and a growing export market for lumber increased the pace of timber cutting throughout the region.

Axes and saws were not the only engines of change operating in Chesapeake forests. Individually requiring from twenty to thirty acres of browsing land per year, free foraging cattle,

horses, and hogs fed voraciously on mast, grasses, woody plants, young hardwood saplings, and unfenced crops. Over-grazing was clearly a major problem in many areas of the region by 1820.

In addition, the destruction of forest canopies when trees were cut down exposed ground surfaces to the sun, warming shallow waters, increasing evaporation, and creating drier conditions. The erosion of soils from forest floors and planting fields into regional rivers increased the amount of sediment flowing into Bay waters. Sediment darkened waters and changed the chemical composition of many rivers and streams, affecting fish and other animals. Sediment also covered the eggs of spawning fish, amphibians, and reptiles, reducing populations in several areas. Mill dams began blocking the spawning runs of migrating fish in upland streams, and log jams – caused when timber fell into streams or broke from log rafts that rivermen floated to downstream markets – occasionally blocked narrower upstream reaches of free flowing rivers.

Land animals were affected by the increased presence of humans as well. Increased hunting reduced animal populations that were already stressed from habitat changes brought on by intensifying development. Several species disappeared during this period. Hunters significantly reduced populations of white-tailed deer and virtually caused the extinction of black bears and beavers, as tanners and furriers struggled to meet high market demands for skins and pelts. To address this problem, states began prohibiting commercial hunting of these and other threatened animal populations. But seemingly unthreatened species, such as the canvasback ducks that were plentiful at the Susquehanna Flats, were still avidly hunted. Because they were rarely preyed on and considered economically unimportant, opportunistic species such as opossums, gray squirrels, raccoons, and Norway rats prospered.

The early years of the Republic saw demographic upheavals throughout the region. Fighting during the Revolution and the War of 1812 forced many people from their homes. Many Loyalists, free blacks, and escaped slaves left the region following the Revolution. After word of the Treaty of Ghent ending the War of 1812 reached the region in early 1815, a second wave of African Americans left. Many moved to Nova Scotia at the invitation of British authorities opposed to slavery and eager to weaken the rival American economy. Thousands of other Chesapeake Bay people joined the westward movement into Kentucky and Ohio Valley lands. Hundreds more were killed by periodic outbreaks of contagion, such as the yellow fever epidemic that ravaged the region between 1793 and 1794. Yellow fever came to the region via mosquitoes that arrived on a ship carrying French refugees fleeing revolution in Haiti.

Yet despite these setbacks, the region's population grew from 700,000 in 1775 to more than 1.3 million by 1820. Family sizes were large in both rural and urban areas. Growing numbers of rural family members, unable to acquire lands of their own near home and unwilling to emigrate, congregated in Chesapeake Bay towns and cities. Commercial seaport towns such as Annapolis, Baltimore, Norfolk, and Chestertown prospered as never before, with the latter soon becoming the largest wheat and tobacco shipping port on Maryland's Eastern Shore. River communities such as Alexandria, Petersburg, and Richmond attracted increasing numbers of French citizens fleeing revolution and war in Europe, West Indians, and other immigrants.

Free and enslaved African Americans made up a large percentage of the population of the Chesapeake Bay region's cities. Baltimore was home to the second largest population of free blacks in the new nation (New Orleans had the largest), and more free blacks lived in Maryland

than in any other state. Vigorous African American communities of oystermen, sailors, skilled tradespeople, and farmers grew along the eastern shore. Farther south in Virginia, black people comprised the largest percentage of the state's total population.

In contrast, Native American populations, mostly limited to tiny rural enclaves in unwanted swamp lands and pine barrens and beset by poverty and disease, continued to decline. Trespassers cutting timber and poaching game on Indian land went unpunished. Maryland sold off all of the remaining Indian lands under its supervision on the Eastern Shore, putting money obtained in sales of Choptank land towards its state's share of $72,000 raised for the construction of public buildings in the new capital in Washington in 1790. Fewer than 500 Native American people probably remained in the region by 1820.

Creation of Social Institutions

Although the family remained at the center of social life in the region, the setting for family events shifted increasingly from the home to public places. Few new social institutions were publicly funded, however. The institute for the insane, built in Williamsburg in 1773, was the only permanent, publicly funded hospital of any type in the region during this period. Many field hospitals and infirmaries opened in the region to care for casualties during the Revolution and the War of 1812. Mostly set up in church buildings, schoolhouses, and other standing structures, these facilities were hastily improvised and soon closed after peace was restored.

Public primary and secondary education languished around Chesapeake Bay. Unwilling to support public schools, regional legislatures tolerated illiteracy rates averaging twenty percent among the white population of the region throughout the period. And education was banned for

slaves and actively suppressed for free blacks. Upper class families tended to hire private tutors to educate younger children. In Maryland, some private academies had opened with state assistance by 1820. A classical curriculum was offered on the formally designed and carefully landscaped campus of the College of William and Mary and, after 1816, on the equally manicured Piedmont grounds of the University of Virginia in Charlottesville. Young people of lesser means sought training in skilled occupations through apprenticeships.

Churches, inns, stores, and courthouses remained centers of public social life during this period. Cities, towns, and villages soon grew around these structures. Expanding commerce necessitated more travel and increased demands for goods and services. Growing enthusiasm for veterans' organizations such as the Order of the Cincinnati and secret societies such as the Masonic Order stimulated construction of new meeting halls. And new church construction was fostered by the temporary disestablishment of the Anglican church, widely associated with the tyranny of the Crown during the Revolution, and the growth of other Protestant denominations. On the eastern shore, Richard Allen, Absalom Jones, and other black ministers played a major role in forming African American congregations.

Expressing Cultural Values

Although the new nation continued to look to Great Britain as its primary model for cultural values, Americans were increasingly influenced by the works of French philosophers and German scientists. But not all Chesapeake people openly embraced scientific development. In 1800, for example, a mob scandalized by anatomy lectures demolished Baltimore's newly erected Anatomical Hall. Undeterred, instructors continued the lectures at the County Alms House.

English remained the nation's language in speech and print. Newspapers such as Annapolis's Maryland Gazette and Baltimore's Maryland Journal played major roles in setting style and forming opinion in the region. In addition to schools and universities, other centers of learning, such as the Library Company of Baltimore (organized in 1795), opened in the region.

The arts flourished in the Chesapeake area during this period. Baltimore became a center of high style painting, silverwork, and furniture manufacture. In 1814, Rembrandt Peale established the region's first museum, the Gallery of Fine Arts in Baltimore, to showcase sixty-four of his paintings portraying eminent men of the Revolution. Few people could afford training in European academies and salons, and the resources were also lacking to sustain a school of the arts in the region. Undaunted, people of every class and caste, intent on expressing themselves, crafted untutored works of art and beauty that today we call folk or naive art.

The Georgian and Federal architectural styles popular during the period closely followed British fashion. Formally landscaped gardens, naturalistic English gardens, and street plans also followed European models. Agrarian life was idealized by such thinkers as Thomas Jefferson as the most natural state, even as the new urban centers began expanding into the countryside.

Although the leading intellectuals of the new nation championed philosophies that emphasized the natural rights of man, liberty and equality continued to be denied to African American slaves. Federal law prohibited the importation of new slaves in 1808, but the institution of slavery persisted in Maryland, Delaware, and Virginia.

Shaping the Political Landscape

State governments began replacing colonial provincial administrations soon after the Revolutionary War broke out in 1775. Chesapeake politicians played important roles in the new nation's government. The author of the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson, and many of its most notable signers came from the region. A Marylander named John Hanson became the first "President of the United States in Congress Assembled" in 1781. Prominent residents served as representatives to the Continental Congress during the war, and to the Constitutional Convention that convened in Philadelphia in 1787. One of these, an outspoken Virginian opponent of slavery named George Mason, penned the Bill of Rights. Four of the first six presidents, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe, also came from the region.

New political parties arose as states in the Chesapeake Bay region held constitutional conventions in assembly halls in Williamsburg, Annapolis, and nearby Philadelphia. Municipal and county politicians throughout the region rushed to build government buildings of their own. Imposing Federal style assembly halls, courthouses, jails, and other administrative structures, patterned after state buildings such as the Virginia State Capitol (begun in 1785), soon rose in many Chesapeake Bay county seats and municipal centers.

The new federal government, established by the Constitutional Convention and supported by a much-increased tax base, soon began a series of public construction programs. A network of federally funded turnpikes traversed the region, including Maryland's Cumberland Road (begun in 1811 in Baltimore and named for its initial western endpoint). Stone edifices were also erected, including the already mentioned Cape Henry Lighthouse, Baltimore's Fort McHenry (begun in 1794), and Virginia's Fortress Monroe (begun in 1819).

Most significantly, a new capital city arose from lands donated by Virginia and Maryland at the fall line of the Potomac River. Based on an elaborate plan developed by the architect Pierre L'Enfant, and surveyed by African American mathematician Benjamin Bannecker, the city was christened the District of Columbia. Renamed Washington after the first president's death in 1799, the new city grew slowly at first. But after its public buildings were burned by a British army in 1814, the city was quickly rebuilt and expanded.

Developing the Chesapeake Economy

Agriculture and commerce continued to dominate the regional economy during this period. Languishing during wartime, maritime commerce grew as merchants struggled to expand trade networks and develop new markets. Expanded harbor, wharf, and warehouse facilities rose up in Chesapeake Bay ports such as Baltimore and Norfolk. Maneuverable flat bottomed sailing ships and barges capable of navigating shallow winding waters carried cargoes through coastal plain waterways. Farther inland, commodities continued to be hauled in wagons drawn by horses and oxen.

Both soil exhaustion and increasing local demand for fresh farm produce convinced many tidewater farmers to switch from cultivating tobacco intensively to producing a wider variety of agricultural products. Farther inland, the Piedmont economy centered on small scale farming, dairying, quarrying, and manufacturing. Water powered factories and workshops along regional rivers and streams transformed locally farmed crops, milled wood, and smelted metal into tools, implements, housewares, furniture, textiles, and other products.

Periodically cut off from European markets, the new nation struggled to attain economic self sufficiency. No central agency regulated commerce in the new nation. Instead, local corporations and municipalities issued currency of their own and funded industry, commerce, and internal improvements. The Bank of the Maryland was established in 1790, for example, and a Baltimore branch of the Bank of the United States was opened three years later. Beset by difficulties, entrepreneurs and managers intent on developing the regional economy struggled against shortages caused by war, production fluctuations, and the vagaries of the decentralized fiscal system.

Expanding Science and Technology

Most of the region's factories and workshops during this era were powered by water. Low head mills situated to allow tide waters to pass over their water wheels on the coastal plain harnessed the power of the ocean. Farther inland, Piedmont watermills harnessed the power of fast flowing, highland streams, using it to grind grain, cut wood, process textiles, and work iron into marketable tools. Inventors in the region made significant advances in waterpower technology to increase production speed and efficiency. Shipbuilders in Baltimore used timber cut and worked in nearby saw mills to build the ever swifter schooners needed to compete successfully in the fast growing coastal and transatlantic trade. Artisans in Chesapeake Bay workshops used precisely calibrated machine tools made and powered with water energy to painstakingly craft accurate navigational instruments and other implements essential to maritime commerce.

Advances were also made in agrarian technology. Thomas Jefferson invented a light and strong moldboard plow that was capable of breaking up hard, densely packed soils. Determined to

end wasteful agricultural methods that exhausted soil fertility, Virginian Edmund Ruffin began a series of experiments to discover an abundant, cheap, effective, and locally available form of manure.

The Baltimore area became a center of early industrial innovation. Baltimore entrepreneurs inaugurated the first commercial steamboat service on Chesapeake Bay in 1813. Four years later, Rembrandt Peale helped organize the nation's first utility, the Baltimore Gas Lighting Company. Baltimore mechanical engineer Oliver Evans played a major role in developing a more precise form of mechanized mass production known as the American System. His treatises on automated manufacturing methods and processes attracted a wide readership. Winning widespread recognition by automating flour mill production, he went on to invent a high pressure steam engine that would later be used to power ships and railroads.

Transforming the Environment

The population and distribution of plants and animals changed significantly during this period. Pioneers, traveling on the ever expanding network of new roads and turnpikes threading the region, transformed forests into fields. Opportunistic, invasive species such as white pine and red cedar proliferated as stands of old growth timber fell to woodsmen's axes. And damage caused by forest fires worsened as settlers failed to follow the ancient Native American practices of clearing underbrush and dead falls, thus leaving plenty of material to keep fires burning.

Beaver, white-tailed deer, black bear, wild turkey, and songbird populations declined as farmers destroyed their habitats and hunters thinned their numbers. The number of domestic animals – including horses, pigs, cattle, sheep, and chickens – rose as native species diminished.

Animals and plants brought from faraway places penetrated by European explorers were deliberately and accidently introduced into the region.

Other factors caused problems as well. As mentioned, erosion caused by deforestation and plow agriculture increased the sediment flowing into the regions' rivers and streams. Rivers, harbors, and bays grew polluted from runoff from roads and sanitary wastes produced by people and horses crowding into expanding urban centers. Wood and charcoal soot poured from chimneys and smokestacks, beginning to foul the air in and around iron furnaces, factories, and residential districts.

Changing Role of the Chesapeake in the World Community

War and independence thrust the region more deeply and directly into world affairs than at any time previously in its history. Campaigns waged in the region during the Revolution and the War of 1812 directly embroiled the Chesapeake Bay region in worldwide conflicts. Foreign trade stimulated the growth of deep water harbor towns such as Baltimore and Norfolk and of river cities such as Chestertown and Richmond. Shipyards constructed oceangoing vessels that linked the region to ports everywhere in the world. Commodities and immigrants flowing into Chesapeake Bay cities, towns and ports began changing every aspect of life throughout the region. As the nation's capital, Washington soon became the nucleus of a small but growing diplomatic community that was both worldly and international.

KEY LOCALES

National Historic Landmarks

District of Columbia

Cleveland Abbe House [1805]
Newton D. Baker House [1794]
Decatur House [1819]
Georgetown Historic District [18th-19th centuries]
Hiram W. Johnson House [ca. 1810]
Lafayette Square Historic District [18th-20th centuries]
Octagon House [1800]
Tudor Place [ca. 1815]
United States Capitol [1793-1865]
U.S. Marine Corps Commandant's House [1803]
Washington Navy Yard [1800-1900]
White House [1792, 1815]

Maryland

Chestertown Historic District [18th century], Kent County
Colonial Annapolis Historic District [17th-18th centuries], Anne Arundel County
First Unitarian Church [1818], Baltimore City
Homewood [1803], Baltimore City
Minor Basilica of the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin Mary [1806-1863], Baltimore City
Peale's Baltimore Museum [1814], Baltimore City
St. Mary's Seminary Chapel [1808], Baltimore City
Star-Spangled Banner House [ca. 1793], Baltimore City
Tulip Hill [1756, 1790], Anne Arundel County
U.S.S. Constellation [1797], Baltimore City
Wye House [1784, 1799], Talbot County

Virginia

Alexandria Historic District [ca. 1861], Alexandria City
Benjamin Banneker SW-9 Intermediate Boundary Stone [1792], Arlington County
Bremo Historic District [early 19th century], Fluvanna County
Dr. John Brockenbrough House [1818], Richmond City
Cape Henry Lighthouse [1792], Virginia Beach
Virginia State Capitol [1785-1792], Richmond City
Fort Monroe [1819-1834], Hampton City
Gadsby's Tavern [1752, 1792], Alexandria City
Green Springs Historic District [18th-19th centuries], Louisa County
John Marshall House [1790], Richmond City
James Monroe Law Office [1786-1789], Fredericksburg City
Monticello [1770-1789], Albemarle County
Monumental Church [1814], Richmond City
Mount Vernon [1792-1799], Fairfax County
Oatlands [1800], Loudon County
Poplar Forest [1808-1819], Bedford County

Potomac Canal Historic District [1786-1830], Fairfax County
Saratoga [1782], Clarke County
James Semple House [ca. 1770], Williamsburg City
Spence's Point [1806], Westmoreland County
John Tyler House [1780, 1842], Charles City County
University of Virginia Historic District [19th-20th centuries], Charlottesville City
Waterford Historic District [18th-19th centuries], Loudon County
Wickham-Valentine House [1812], Richmond City
Williamsburg Historic District [1633-1779], Williamsburg City

FURTHER INFORMATION

Books and Articles

Useful surveys of life in the region during this period include the following:

Carol Ashe, *Four Hundred Years of Virginia, 1584-1984: An Anthology* (1985).
Richard R. Beeman, *The Old Dominion and the New Nation, 1788-1801* (1985).
Carl Bode, *Maryland: A Bicentennial History* (1978).
Robert J. Brugger, *Maryland: A Middle Temperament, 1634-1980* (1988).
Suzanne Chapelle, et al., *Maryland: A History of Its People* (1986).
Frederick A. Gutheim, *The Potomac* (1968).
Harold B. Hancock, *Delaware 200 Years Ago* (1987).
Rhys Isaac, *The Transformation of Virginia, 1740-1790* (1982).
Paul Metcalf, editor, *Waters of Potowmack* (1982).
Lucien Niemeyer and Eugene L. Meyer, *Chesapeake Country* (1990).
Edward C. Papenfuse, et al., *Maryland: A New Guide to the Old Line State* (1979).
Morris L. Radoff, *The Old Line State: A History of Maryland* (1971).
L. Marx Renzulli, *Maryland: The Federalist Years* (1972).
Emily J. Salmon, editor, *A Hornbook of Virginia History* (1983).

These are some major ecological surveys:

Timothy Silver, *A New Face on the Countryside* (1990).
James P. Thomas, editor, *Chesapeake* (1986).
David A. Zegers, editor, *At the Crossroads: A Natural History of Southcentral Pennsylvania* (1994).

Atlases and geographic surveys depicting large scale patterns in the development of the period's

Chesapeake Bay cultural landscapes include the following:

Lester J. Cappon, editor, *Atlas of Early American History* (1976).

Michael Conzen, editor, *The Making of the American Landscape* (1990).
David J. Cuff, et al., *The Atlas of Pennsylvania* (1989).
James E. DiLisio, *Maryland: A Geography* (1983).
D. W. Meinig, *The Shaping of America: A Geographical Perspective* (1986).
Edward C. Papenfuse, et al., *The Hammond-Harwood House Atlas of Historical Maps of Maryland, 1608-1908* (1982).
John R. Stilgoe, *Common Landscape of America, 1580 to 1845* (1982).
Helen Hornbeck Tanner, *The Settling of North America* (1995).
Derek Thompson, et al., *Atlas of Maryland* (1977).
Kent T. Zachary, *Cultural Landscapes of the Potomac* (1995).

These are among the studies of individual, small scale communities:

Carville V. Earle, *The Evolution of a Tidewater Settlement System* (1975).
Jack Temple Kirby, *Poquosson* (1986).
Jerome H. Wood, Jr., *Conestoga Crossroads* (1975).

Biographical accounts providing insights into individual lives include the following:

Frank A. Cassell, *Merchant Congressman in the Young Republic* (1971).
Eugene S. Ferguson, *Oliver Evans, The Inventive Genius of the American Industrial Revolution* (1980).
Charles A. Miller, *Jefferson and Nature* (1988).
Gregory A. Stiverson and Phebe R. Jacobson, *William Paca: A Biography* (1976).

Among the many studies surveying key aspects of the period's social life are the following:

Herbert Aptheker, *American Negro Slave Revolts* (1943).
Kathleen Brown, *Good Wives, Nasty Wenches, and Anxious Patriarchs* (1996).
Dieter Cunz, *The Maryland Germans* (1948).
James Henretta and Gregory Nobles, *Evolution and Revolution* (1987).
Terry G. Jordan and Matti Kaups, *The American Backwoods Frontier* (1989).
Suzanne Lebsock, *Virginia Women, 1600-1945* (1987).
Roland C. McConnell, *Three Hundred and Fifty Years* (1985).
Vera F. Rollo, *The Black Experience in Maryland* (1980).
Helen C. Rountree, *Pocahontas's People* (1990).
Donald G. Shomette, *Pirates on the Chesapeake* (1985).
Bruce G. Trigger, editor, *Northeast* (Vol. 15, Handbook of North American Indians, 1978).
Wilcomb E. Washburn, editor, *History of Indian-White Relations* (Vol. 4, Handbook of North American Indians, 1988).
James M. Wright, *The Free Negro in Maryland, 1634-1860* (1921).

Significant examples of the large number of recent scholarly studies of slavery in the Chesapeake Bay region during this period include the following:

Ira Berlin, *Many Thousands Gone* (1998).
----- and Philip Morgan, editors, *The Slave's Economy* (1991).
----- and Philip Morgan, editors, *Cultivation and Culture* (1993).
Douglas R. Egerton, *Gabriel's Rebellion* (1993).
Barbara J. Fields, *Slavery and Freedom on the Middle Ground* (1985).
Ronald Lewis, *Coal, Iron, and Slaves* (1979).
Philip Morgan, *Slave Counterpoint* (1997).
Michael Tadman, *Speculators and Slaves* (1989).
T. Stephen Whitman, *The Price of Freedom* (1997).
William H. Williams, *Slavery and Freedom in Delaware, 1639-1865* (1996).
Carol Wilson, *Freedom at Risk* (1994).
Gilbert L. Wilson, *An Introduction into the History of Slavery in Prince George's County* (1991).

These works are among the numerous studies addressing the development of religion during this period:

Donald G. Mathews, *Slavery and Methodism* (1965).
Albert J. Raboteau, *Slave Religion* (1978).
William H. Williams, *The Garden of American Methodism* (1984).

Useful insights into period political life may be found in these books:

Whitman H. Ridgway, *Community Leadership in Maryland, 1790-1840* (1979).
Norman K. Risjord, *Chesapeake Politics: 1781-1800* (1978).
Malcolm J. Rohrbaugh, *The Land Office Business* (1968).

Among the many studies focusing on the Revolution and the War of 1812 in Chesapeake Bay are the following:

Philip A. Crowl, *Maryland During and After the Revolution* (1943).
Ronald Hoffman, *A Spirit of Dissension* (1973).
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Key economic studies include the following:

Percy W. Bidwell and John I. Falconer, *History of Agriculture in the Northern United States,*

1620-1860 (1925).
Lewis C. Gray, *History of Agriculture in the Southern United States to 1860* (1932).
Harold B. Hancock, *Delaware 200 Years Ago: 1780-1820* (1987).
James T. Lemon *The Best Poor Man's Country* (1972).
Allan Kulikoff, *Tobacco and Slaves* (1986).
-----, *Agrarian Origins of American Capitalism* (1992).
Arthur Pierce Middleton, *Tobacco Coast* (1984).
Edward C. Papenfuse, *In Pursuit of Profit* (1975).
Glenn Porter, editor, *Regional Economic History of the Mid-Atlantic Area Since 1700* (1976).

Analyses of regional scientific and technological developments during the period may be found in the following:

Brook Hindle, editor, *America's Wooden Age* (1975).
David A. Hounshell, *From the American System to Mass Production, 1800-1932* (1984).

Surveys examining the region's buildings and architecture include the following:

Michael Bourne, et al., *Architecture and Change in the Chesapeake* (1998)..
J. Ritchie Garrison, et al., editors, *After Ratification* (1988).
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Archeological studies include the following:

James Deetz, *Flowerdew Hundred* (1984).
William M. Kelso, *Kingsmill Plantation, 1619-1800* (1984).
----- and R. Most, editors, *Earth Patterns* (1990).
Paul A. Shackel and Barbara J. Little, *Historical Archaeology of the Chesapeake, 1784-1994* (1994).
-----, et al., editors, *Annapolis Pasts* (1998).
Theresa A. Singleton, editor, *The Archaeology of Slavery and Plantation Life* (1985).

Among the many studies focusing on the development of urban life in Washington, D.C., are the following:

Bob Arnebeck, *Through a Fiery Trial* (1991).
Constance M. Green, *Washington: A History of the Capital, 1800-1878* (1961).
Frederick A. Gutheim, *Worthy of the Nation* (1977).
James Young, *The Washington Community, 1800-1828* (1960).

The emergence of Baltimore as the region's largest city is traced in the following works:

Gary Browne, *Baltimore in the Nation, 1789-1861* (1980).
Isaac M. Fein, *The Making of an American Jewish Community* (1971).
Leroy Graham, *Baltimore: The Nineteenth-Century Black Capital* (1982).
James W. Livingood, *The Philadelphia-Baltimore Trade Rivalry, 1780-1830* (1947).
Charles G. Steffen, *The Mechanics of Baltimore* (1984).